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NOTES AND NEWS.

THE telegraphed summary of the Indian Budget, with its grotesque and misleading array of "rupee-pounds," shows once more how little relation there is between the hard facts of Indian life and the ingenious arithmetic of Anglo-Indian book-keepers. It is "surplus, surplus all the way," in spite of the worst famine in the history of the world, and in spite of the fact that millions of Indians have during the year died of starvation, not because there was not enough food in the country, but because they were too poor to buy or borrow it. To exhibit a surplus is the recognised business of a Finance Minister. But to the lay mind it must sometimes occur that there may be circumstances in which a surplus is more discreditable than a deficit. One would not congratulate an absentee landlord who boasted of his income at a time when his indigent tenants, hopelessly in debt to moneylenders, were dying like flies. If the surplus which Sir Edward Law was able to show on Wednesday were genuine, there would be no escape for the Government of India from a painful dilemma. For it would have to confess either (1) that it had taken too much from the taxpayers, or (2) that it should have dealt in less niggardly fashion with the sufferers through famine.

In spite of the famine the revised estimate for the past year shows an increase of revenue exceeding £2,100,000. The yield from the salt-tax shows an increase of £106,000. Is that a matter for congratulation? The land revenue, again, shows a decrease only of £383,000. The comparative slightness of this decrease in a time of unparalleled famine would call for remark even if it stood alone. But it has to be considered in connexion with only too much evidence of the rigour with which the land revenue has been collected and the parsimony with which suspensions and remissions have been granted. Similarly we read that the expenditure for Army Services during the year declined by £1,185,000, "chiefly China and South Africa savings." We are glad of the saving. But it suggests this question—if India has saved this sum in one year through the loan of troops she did not need, how much greater is the sum which for so many years she has unjustly been compelled to pay for the maintenance of that Imperial reserve? Under the head of famine relief and insurance the expenditure for the past year shows an increase of £876,000. As a final surplus of £1,640,000 is shown, the Government of India may fairly be called upon to explain why the expenditure upon famine relief was not greater. The task of saving life was, as has so often been proved, mainly a question of money. Yet lives have been lost by the million. How, then, is the surplus to be justified?

The Budget estimate for 1901-1902 is made to work out at a surplus of £691,000. The figure is purely conjectural, and while Sir Edward Law was about it he might as well have multiplied it by three. The Budget assumes an increase of £475,000 under the head of land revenue. Now, of two things, one. Either, in view of the recrudescence of famine, this estimate will be falsified; or the rigour of the tax-collector, which means the yoke of the money-lender will be still more oppressive. The Government, as usual, takes an optimistic view of the famine. A decrease of £3,245,000 is expected under the head of famine relief and insurance. We shall see. Side by side with this figure may be placed an estimated increase of £2,062,000 under Army Services. There is always plenty of money in India for unproductive expenditure. But the Budget which provides for a surplus also anticipates an increase to the permanent debt of £2,240,000 and an addition to the unfunded debt of £502,000. There is the usual contrast between the programme of railway expenditure and expenditure upon irrigation—nearly £7,000,000 for the first and less than £700,000 for the second. "As to the countervailing sugar duties," we are told, "no conclusion is yet possible." The justification of that ill-starred measure tarries long. Finally the telegram states that "the economic progress is examined and shown to be satisfactory." We await the demonstration with some curiosity. But famines and census returns do not daunt your professional optimist.

The theory that India was over-populated and that the excessive growth of the population was the real cause of Indian poverty has long been the favourite argument of Anglo-Indians when they were confronted with proposals for reform. It was naturally much pleasanter to them to think of the sufferings of the people as due to causes beyond human control, or at least out of the sphere of Government, than to allow that it could be due to the heavy taxation and assessments necessary to support the most expensive administration in the world, or to the drain on the country resulting from alien rule and alien exploitation. Therefore it became an established maxim with the defenders of English rule in India that if it at all contributed to the poverty of India it was by its beneficence and peace, which stimulated a vast increase of population beyond the resources of the country to support.

It is true that there were some difficulties in this theory. As has been often pointed out in these columns, the population of India did not increase with any wonderful rapidity. It grew more slowly than that of many European countries, and at about the same rate as in Japan. Nor was poverty most acute where the population was thickest. Moreover, in this land, by supposition over-populated, the exports always largely exceeded the imports, and among these exports were articles of food, while great tracts on which food might have been grown were devoted to the production of opium for export. Nevertheless, the Anglo-Indian comfortably rolled off the millions of increase between each census, and thought that he had amiably accounted for all the ills of India. Now we have the results of the new census, and the increase on a population of nearly 300,000,000 is under 7,000,000. Nay, if we subtract certain districts which now appear for the first time, the increase is only 4,283,000, or 1·49 per cent.

This in itself is sufficiently startling, for it would mean that the population of India increases little more in ten years than that of England does in one. But even this trivial increase disappears when we remember that at the end of each decennial period there is a considerable improvement in the accuracy with which the census is taken. Practically the population of India is stationary. When we look into the figures a little more closely it becomes evident that the rise and fall of population in India is a result of antecedents not in the least mysterious but capable for the most part of very obvious explanation. In fact it appears that population in India as elsewhere has a way of adapting itself to circumstances, and where its natural course is not interrupted by war, pestilence, or famine, of advancing much more quickly in thinly peopled districts than in those already crowded. Nor is it true that poverty is greatest in these latter; still less that famine results from over-population. Famine results from poverty, and

poverty cannot be gauged by the census returns. Depopulation results from famine, but not prosperity from depopulation.

Looking at the figures we see that in Assam and still more in Burma there has been a great increase, equal in Lower Burma to 21·8 per cent. during the ten years, or ·22 a year. The increase in Sind has also been considerable. In Madras and the Punjab, however, the increase has only amounted to ·72 and ·76 per cent. per annum respectively, while in Bengal it has only been ·47 and in the North-West Provinces ·16. In Berar, Bombay, the Central Provinces and Ajmere and Marwar there has been a decrease. In these districts the diminution is seen both in the Native States and in British territory—being rather greater in the latter in the Central Provinces, and much greater in the former in the other cases. To confine ourselves to British territory, the fall in Bombay amounts to ·39 per cent. per annum and in the Central Provinces to ·87. It will be noted that in the Native States both the increase and the decrease bear a greater ratio to the population than in British territory outside of Burma. The larger areas taken in the latter not only usually include districts which have felt the famine in very varied degrees, even if all have felt it, but cause the emigration due to famine to have, except perhaps in the border districts, little result on the census figures.

Hyderabad, the largest of the Native States, and the one therefore where one would expect the nearest approach to the diversities appearing in a British Province, has a decrease of ·31 per cent. per annum, or rather less than that of Bombay (·39). On the other hand Baroda, where the famine was very intense, suffered a decrease of 1·92 per cent. per annum, and the Native States of Bombay a decrease of 1·4; but for a true comparison we must take, not the whole of Bombay, and the whole of the Bombay Native States, but particular districts and the Native States contiguous. In the Central Provinces there was little difference and that unfavourable to British territory. According to the theory of over-population, India as a whole ought now to be entering on a period of prosperity which will last till the gaps in the population have been made up; or at least Bombay and the Central Provinces should be in that position even if Bengal with its densely massed population was increasing in misery. But so far the prosperity of the Central Provinces is not apparent, and the poverty of Bengal, however great it may be, is wealth in comparison.

It is satisfactory to learn from the Calcutta correspondent of the *Times* that the "whole subject of relief programmes" is to be "fully investigated by expert engineers in every province, who are ordered to report next autumn." The Government resolution on the subject shows that

> between 1878 and 1898 the area under irrigation rose from thirty-two to forty-six million acres, while there still remained, chiefly in Punjab and Sind, projects which add four million more at an estimated cost of 12 crores of rupees. These will be productive, returning a good interest on the capital outlay. The Government state that they will be prosecuted as rapidly as circumstances permit.

That is good news, though one would like to know where the money is to come from. Moreover,

> the Government are convinced that many opportunities exist, which are not or are very imperfectly utilised, for constructing minor canals or storage reservoirs for the utilization of hill streams. They also consider that more attention should be paid to the subject of well irrigation. An enquiry is being instituted as to whether the Government might not advantageously give more assistance to landowners and occupiers by loans, expert advice, or grants in aid from the famine fund. Engineers are now being placed on special duty in each province to be able to furnish the Government with full details on these matters.

So we have not been preaching wholly to deaf ears, after all. Obviously much can be done in the directions indicated, not merely for the relief but also for the prevention of famine.

A very valuable Minute has been furnished, at the instance of the local Commissioner, by Mr. H. N. Haridas, Barrister-at-law and Municipal Commissioner, Surat, on the progress and the incidents of the famine. In the Surat District there had been bad harvests in the two preceding years. The rains ceased towards the end of July, 1899, the actual rainfall being 40 to 50 per cent. below average. The kharif sowings covered only 70 per cent. of the normal area, and the out-turn was only 25 per cent. of the normal. "The digging of wells," says Mr. Haridas, "was not, to my knowledge, encouraged to any extent;" and such efforts as were made by individuals "were not successful in producing any effect on crop prospects," on account of their limited means. The scale of wages at the works "was inadequate." The aboriginal tribes, numerous in the district, showed "great unwillingness" to accept relief, and the measures of distribution "were not very successful."

> Even the poor Kali-paraj evinced the greatest dislike to go on relief. They preferred to die at home than go to works. Relief had to be taken to them. The danger is not of people being very ready to seek relief, but of many being excluded from relief on account of their not going to works. . . . . Even during the worst famines people in India would be most reluctant to keep body and soul together with other people's money.

In Mandvi people tried to satisfy the cravings of hunger by eating "rank vegetation." In Morkantha, in the Olpad Taluka, "the distress was so great that Kolis lived on moras, a salt sea weed." Mr. Haridas mentions an appalling mortality from "cholera," as the result of eating these wild products in semi-starvation, and thinks that the cause should be assigned to "famine diarrhœa," and not cholera. He speaks also of complaints of insufficiency of rolling stock, involving delay in getting up fodder, etc., and consequently a serious mortality of cattle. Yet nearly 95 per cent. of the revenue was collected—10 per cent. from the rayats, and 85 per cent. from the sowkars. The picture he presents is far from satisfactory.

Mr. Haridas urges strongly that it is futile to wait till famine is upon the people. "A portion from the Imperial revenue should every year be actually expended, even in good times, on measures which will give the country some strength to bear calamities like famine." He is for prevention, by means of "irrigation works, industrial and agricultural education, and works, in short, calculated to improve the material prospects of the country." With regard to the opening of relief or test works, he says:—

> I cannot understand the significance of question 6. Surely the village officers do from time to time make reports about crop-prospects, rainfall, difficulties, etc., in collecting revenue, and the general state of the rayats—*e.g.*, how far they are able or unable to bear the State revenue, and how far they are able to maintain themselves and their families. If these reports do go regularly to the higher officers, they must be always in a position to predict any impending failure of crops. Why should they wait till there is a crop failure, or till the so-called test-works are opened? The distress does commence to a very large extent before the officers are aware of the crop failure. I am afraid either there is (1) some flaw in the system of reporting adopted by village officers, or (2) that these reports are not carefully prepared, and hence they do not truly represent the prospects of the season, or (3) those responsible are slow and reluctant for reasons not before the non-official classes to adopt speedy measures for meeting the distress. Perhaps all the three causes operate together.

To the non-official mind these criticisms appear incisive as well as obvious, and it seems very strange that there should be any room for urging them at all. Now, however, we hope that official attention will be given to them.

The first thing to consider in the matter of relief, in Mr. Haridas's view, is how to prevent the disorganisation of the ordinary industrial life in the villages. "Small village relief works" must, he thinks, have "a prominent place" in the relief programme. "Large relief works" may have a place, and may serve some useful purpose, but the people are reluctant to go to them, and especially if they are at a great distance. But even large relief works are better than no relief works at all. The following passage is painfully significant:—

> In the Surat district the line of action adopted in the matter of opening relief works and affording relief assistance seems to have been highly objectionable. For some months after the famine became inevitable no effective measure seems to have been taken to open relief works. Some work was opened at Barbodhan, Olpad Taluka. It was what may be called a big work. It did much service, but it was in itself not enough to afford relief to thousands in the district for whom very, very little, next to nothing, seems to have been done. . . . . But, strange to state, when the distress was the greatest, these Barbodhan works were closed, and, instead of Barbodhan, works were opened at Areth, in Mandvi, and in other places not near the affected parts in the Olpad Taluka. The Olpad people then had no near relief works to go to, and I am afraid many must have died on account of the closing of the Barbodhan works. The distress in Olpad was very great. . . . . Cheap grain shops may have been opened at Rander, and some Local Fund money and Famine Fund money may have been distributed. But the help so

given was very little. Surely the authorities might have found some means of helping the people of Olpad.

We shall await with interest the official explanation of these points of complaint.

We have already noted that, while 10 per cent of the revenue collected was taken from the rayats, 85 per cent. was taken from the sowkars. Mr. Haridas expresses his opinion that such recovery of revenue from the sowkars is illegal, but he admits frankly that the course was taken by the officers concerned out of consideration for the rayats. Now consider the situation presented :—

> The Khedu (rayats) were in a state of chronic poverty. A large majority of them had no means of subsistence. In Mandvi the distress was so great that many of the Kali-paraj had to sell even the bamboos of their huts and were practically homeless.

The Government revenue must be realised. Obviously it could not be realised from rayats in such dire distress. But the sowkar had money-bags, and was made to pay. Now mark the resulting mischief :—

> No doubt in most cases the Khedu is in the clutches of the sowkar. No doubt the Khedu is only a serf on his own land. . . . . He must go to the sowkar. In proportion as the Khedu's poverty increases, his credit decreases. . . . . The recovery of the revenue from the Sowkars has in fact increased the Khedu's indebtedness to the Sowkar. He would have to pay the revenue and decidedly interest to the Sowkar. In spite of the good intentions of the officers, the liability of the Khedu to pay his sowkar can and will never be extinguished. . . . . The Khedu will lose his all. I am afraid he has lost all. . . . . Even the sowkar will collapse in the long run by the ruin of his constituents. What will become of the Khedu then?

It is a plain road to ruin—universal ruin—for what will become of the Government revenue then? Legislation is talked of, but Mr. Haridas expects little good from it. His advice is this :—

> The best remedy is to find means for the improvement of the material condition of the Khedu by relaxing the demand for revenue, by constructing works of importance, by initiating a proper system of industrial education, and by encouraging good agriculture, but, above all, by making money more accessible to the Khedu. The only way of protecting him from the old sowkar is to create a new sowkar in the shape of agricultural banks, from which the Khedu can get easy advances for all his wants. Capital is the cry. Supply it and increase it.

Lord George Hamilton, at the close of his "Budget" speech last summer, said that Indian civil servants are now "so overburdened with correspondence, reports, and returns, that they are really imprisoned in their offices for the greater part of the day." Mr. F. Loraine Petre enlarged upon this text in an interesting paper to the East India Association the other day upon "The Indian Secretariats and their Relation to the General Administration." His proposals are briefly (1) that men should not be selected for the secretariat too early in their service, and (2) that they should not be allowed to serve continuously in it for more than two or three years at a time. His description of the existing system is alarming enough :

> The servant of Government, be he a member of the Civil Service, an engineer, or a police officer, who spends many successive years of his life in an office chair, dealing with matters of administration from a distance and on paper, is almost sure to find himself very much at sea when he suddenly returns to dealing with them on the spot and in practice. He will have lost his touch of the people and of the country, whilst acquiring the idea that the orders which he has been accustomed to draft from the central office are the best possible, and that there can be no difficulties in carrying them out.

Mr. Petre's picture of the "secretariat-bred official" is noteworthy :—

> He has perhaps been caught up into the secretariat after his first three years of residence in the country, at a time when he has but recently attained a fair colloquial knowledge of its vernacular and a very superficial acquaintance with the customs and mode of thought of an entirely strange people. When he reaches headquarters he ceases to use vernacular except to a very limited extent, and he no longer comes in contact with the true representative types of the general populace. The clerks and servants with whom alone he probably deals are an artificially trained class, very different from the rustics, the townspeople, and the officials of the districts. After four or five years he is often incapable of speaking intelligently to an educated Native official, still more so of even understanding the *patois* of a villager.

And again :—

> The excessive use of the pen in India is a matter which has been noticed and condemned on many occasions by many competent judges, but the evil grows greater and greater every year. The clerk seeks to justify the existence of his post by writing long notes when none or at most only a few words are necessary. The under-secretary, instead of accepting as sufficient the clerk's note, however correct and complete it may be, thinks he is called upon to write another note, repeating often much that has already been written. Whether he understands the subject or not, he sometimes thinks he sees his way to acquiring a reputation by smart writing. With all this note-writing a small file rapidly grows in bulk. . . . At least half this writing is useless repetition and waste of time both of its writers and of those who have to read it. The prevailing ideas in the minds of the note-writers are apt to be that unless they amplify their subordinates' notes they run the risk of being thought idle, and that much writing is the way to bring themselves to notice.

Lord Curzon is no doubt doing his best to check these absurdities, as well as the excessive writing of reports and reviews. But, as Mr. Petre says, "it remains to be seen whether the reforms which he inaugurates will last. There seems only too strong reason to fear that the term of office of a single Viceroy is insufficient to insure their stability."

A lively discussion followed Mr. Petre's paper in which Mr. Thorburn, Sir Lepel Griffin, Sir A. Lyall, and others took part. All the speakers (a correspondent writes) were unanimous on two points—(1) the hard work of the low-paid village officers on whom falls the burden of supplying information asked for by the chiefs of secretariats, Governors, Viceroys, and Secretaries of State. Mr. Petre said he had seen his office staff, whom he had left in the evening, still at work in the morning when he was on his way to golf. The second point (2) emphasised by Mr. Thorburn was that the machinery of Indian administration is "top heavy." One end of the administration is with the Secretary of State and the Viceroy, and the other end is rooted in the people. Reforms with regard to pay, leisure of officers, etc., have been made at the former end, while the other remains as it was perhaps one hundred years ago. But unless this end is improved—unless something is done to relieve the hard-worked village official—very serious consequences may follow.

In the course of an address to the Bridgeton (Glasgow) Liberal Association (March 14), Professor Murison touched upon India in the Imperial relation. Having contrasted Ireland and the Colonies—Ireland consistently thwarted and flouted, and therefore politically rebellious, Canada and Australia bubbling over with loyalty because practically independent—he referred to India as profoundly loyal, although despotically governed and oppressed with Sedition laws passed by ignorant officialism in panic. How was it that such a strange combination of conditions—loyalty under despotism—should ever arise and continue to exist? Because of "the invincible confidence of educated India in the essential justice of the British people, once the British people could be got to understand the Indian case." He recalled the loyal sympathy and effective assistance of India in the military operations in South Africa and China, and contrasted the political selfishness that refused a national grant in recognition of India's friendly action at a time when the country was in the deadly grasp of the worst famine of the century. He maintained that there would be no Imperialism of a creditable type until every part of the Empire contributed its just proportion to the costs of Imperial Government, and all members of the Empire, whether Irish or Indian, white skins or dusky, were frankly treated on a footing of political and social equality, and there was an end of domineering and oppression. These views were received by the large audience with emphatic approbation. Professor Murison has not yet consented to contest Bridgeton again at the next election.

Remittances on India for 80 lakhs were on Wednesday offered for tender by the India Council, and applications amounting to Rs.2,79,60,000 were received at prices ranging from 1s. $3\frac{7}{8}$d. to 1s. $3\frac{31}{32}$d. The following amounts were allotted—viz., in bills, Rs.45,01,000 on Calcutta, Rs.5,09,000 on Bombay, and Rs.25,11,000 on Madras, all at an average of 1s. 3·906d.; and in telegraphic transfers, Rs.2,21,000 on Calcutta, Rs.1,47,000 on Bombay, Rs.1,11,000 on Madras, all at an average of 1s. 3·968d. Tenders for bills at 1s. $3\frac{29}{32}$d., and for transfers at 1s. $3\frac{31}{32}$d., will receive about 73 per cent. Later the Council sold bills for Rs.15,000 on Bombay at 1s. $3\frac{15}{16}$d. Last week remittances for Rs.56,74,670 were sold for £376,462, making the total sold from April 1 to Tuesday night Rs.18,72,08,693, producing £12,462,906. Next week the amount to be offered will be reduced to 70 lakhs.

"A FORGOTTEN EMPIRE":[1]
VIJAYANAGAR.

A VAST mass of ruins lying near the little village of Hampi on the river Tungabhadra marks the spot where once stood the great "City of Victory," Vijayanagar, the lordly capital of a mighty Hindu kingdom stretching from the Deccan to Ceylon. The advent of the Mahometan invaders on the Krishna river combined the Hindu powers of the South under the standard of Vijayanagar, which had grown out of the tiny principality of Anegundi, and which for nearly two centuries and a half from A.D. 1336 stemmed the tide of Moslem aggression.

The rulers of Vijayanagar in their day swayed the destinies of an Empire far larger than Austria, and the city is declared by a succession of European visitors in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries to have been marvellous for size and prosperity—a city with which for richness and magnificence no known Western capital could compare. Its importance is shown by the fact that almost all the struggles of the Portuguese on the Western coast were carried on for the purpose of securing its maritime trade; and that, when the Empire fell in 1565, the prosperity of Portuguese Goa fell with it never to rise again.

Yet even the name of this great Empire and this magnificent city "has died out of men's minds and memories." Mr. Sewell has diligently gathered together the dead bones of the history of Vijayanagar, pieced them into a skeleton, and clothed them with not a little presentable flesh. Most notable of his materials are two Portuguese chronicles, which he translates and prints at the end of the volume. They "throw a flood of light upon the condition of the city of Vijayanagar early in the sixteenth century, and upon the history of its successive dynasties." The first, dated about 1520, relates the experiences of Domingo Paes at the great Hindu capital at the time of its highest grandeur and magnificence; the second contains the traditional history of the country gathered first-hand on the spot and an important narrative of local and current events by Fernao Nuniz, written not later than 1536-37. It seems certain that both documents were in the hands of the Spanish historian Barros, and it may be that he was the very person they were sent to from Goa. But the Spanish writers that have used them "have taken all the life out of them by eliminating the personal factor, the presence of which in the originals gives them their greatest charm." The knowledge of the existence of these valuable chronicles is due to the distinguished Arabic scholar, Senhor Lopes. It is pleasant to observe that the Governor and Council of Madras "by subsidising this work have rendered its publication possible."

On an examination of many tales and traditions in conjunction with known historical facts, Mr. Sewell accounts for the origin of the great kingdom as follows:—

We may suppose that two brothers, Hindus of the Kuruba caste, who were men of strong religious feeling, serving in the treasury of the King of Warangal, fled from that place on its sack and destruction in 1323 and took service under the petty Raja of Anegundi. Both they and their chiefs were filled with horror and disgust at the conduct of the marauding Moslems, and pledged themselves to the cause of their country and their religion. The brothers rose to be minister and treasurer respectively at Anegundi. In 1334 the Chief gave shelter to Bahâ-ud-dîn, nephew of Muhammad of Delhi, and was attacked by the Sultan. Anegundi fell, as narrated by Batuta, and the Sultan retired, leaving Mallik as his deputy to rule the State. Mallik found the people too strong for him, and eventually the Sultan restored the country to the Hindus, raising to be Raja and Minister respectively the two brothers who had formerly been minister and treasurer. These were Harihara ("Hukka") and Bukka I.

The First Dynasty reigned from 1336 to 1490. Under Harihara I (1336-43) the city of Vijayanagar, like legendary Rome under Romulus, "speedily grew in importance and became the refuge of the outcasts, refugees and fighting men of the Hindus, beaten and driven out of their old strongholds by the advancing Mahometans." The territory also expanded, mainly perhaps by peaceful influences. Under Bukka I (1343-79) most, if not all, Southern India submitted to Vijayanagar, "probably only too anxious to secure a continuance of Hindu domination in preference to the despotism of the hated followers of Islâm." Vijayanagar bore the brunt of repeated and severe Mahometan attacks. Harihara II (1379-99), a son of Bukka, was well up in years before his accession, and was always a lover of peace. His successor, Bukka II (1399-1406), is said to have "greatly improved the city of Vijayanagar, raising fresh walls and towers, increasing its extent, and building further lines of fortification."

This great work was the construction of a huge dam in the Tungabhadrâ river, and the formation of an aqueduct fifteen miles long from the river to the city. If this be the same channel that to the present day supplies the fields which occupy so much of the site of the old city, it is a most extraordinary work. For several miles this channel is cut out of the solid rock at the base of the hills, and is one of the most remarkable irrigation works to be seen in India.

There is no very full or distinctive account of the remaining reigns of the First Dynasty. An escapade of Deva Râya I (1406-19), "a mad adventure of the Râya, which he undertook in order to secure for himself the person of a beautiful girl, the daughter of a farmer in Mudkal," and which is narrated by Firishtah, varies the monotony; it led to the immediate loss of 2,000 men and landed the amorous king in a war. The visit of an Italian, Nicolo Conti (or dei Conti), to Vijayanagar in the reign of Deva Râya II (1420(?)-43), and the visit of Abdur Razzâk, an ambassador from Persia, in 1442-43, supply matter for a most interesting chapter describing the appearance and condition of the great city in these days. The course of the fifteenth century, however, was a troublous one; and from about 1450 for some forty years "the kingdom passed from one hand to the other in the midst of much political agitation, discontent, and widespread antagonism to the representatives of the royal family, several of whom appear to have met violent deaths." At last the nobles rose against Virûpâksha, a despotic, cruel, and sensuous ruler, deposed him, and placed on the throne Narasimha, "who was in some manner akin to him." Thus the First Dynasty fell, about 1487-90.

The Second Dynasty lasted about three quarters of a century—till 1565. The traditional account of the change of dynasty, whether historical or not, is revealed in the newly-discovered chronicle of Nuniz, in very interesting form. The discrepancies between Nuniz and Firishtah give rise to much confusion and difficulty; and the Native inscriptions even are widely at variance with each other as to the relationship of the succeeding sovereigns of the second line. Mr. Sewell labours manfully to discriminate fact from fiction, and so far clears the ground. Early in the reign of Krishna Deva Râya (1509-30)—March 1, 1510—the Portuguese under Albuquerque landed at Goa. Krishna Râya is described by Paes as a very striking personality, "gallant and perfect in all things," only that his successes bred an arrogance that eventually led to the downfall of the Hindu Empire. "He commanded his immense armies in person," writes Mr. Sewell, "was able, brave, and statesmanlike; and was withal a man of much gentleness and generosity of character. He was beloved by all and respected by all." In Firishtah and in the inscriptions he is but a shadow; Paes gives him life and blood. His reign "was the period of Vijayanagar's greatest successes, when its armies were everywhere victorious, and the city was most prosperous." Mr. Sewell narrates in amplest detail the siege and battle of Raichûr. This great battle he determines to have taken place on May 19, 1520, "a date almost synchronous with the 'Field of the Cloth of Gold.'" It does, indeed, demand some credulity to accept Nuniz's list of the troops that marched from Vijayanagar on the campaign: "703,000 foot, 32,600 horse, 551 elephants, *besides* the camp followers, merchants, etc., and 'an infinitude of people,' who joined Krishna Râya at a place close to Raichûr." If estimates are deceptive, yet this estimate is easily paralleled in Indian history. Krishna Râya had been preparing the attack for several years, and "it is worthy of notice that throughout the story of Nuniz at this part of his chronicle there is much that impels the belief that either himself or his informant was present at the Hindu camp while these events were taking place." The Mahometan point of view is given by Firishtah. At any rate the battle had far-reaching effects.

The Hindu victory so weakened the power and prestige of Adil Shâh that he ceased altogether to dream of any present conquest in the South, and turned his attention to cementing alliances with the other Mahometan sovereigns his neighbours. The victory also caused all the other Mahometan Powers in the Deccan seriously to consider the political condition of the country; and this eventually led to a combination without which nothing was possible, but by the aid of which the Vijayanagar Empire was finally overthrown and the way to the South opened. It furthermore greatly affected the Hindus by raising in them a spirit of pride and arrogance, which added fuel to the fire, caused them to become positively intolerable to their neighbours, and accelerated their own downfall.

It equally affected the fortunes of the Portuguese on the coast.

[1] "A Forgotten Empire (Vijayanagar): a Contribution to the History of India." By Robert Sewell, Madras Civil Service (Retired), M.R.A.S., F.R.G.S. London: Swan Sonnenschein and Co., Ltd. Price 15s.

Goa rose and fell simultaneously with the rise and fall of the second Vijayanagar dynasty; and necessarily so, considering that its entire trade depended on Hindu support, for the King of Portugal was never well disposed towards his hereditary enemies, the "Moors." .... When Vijayanagar, with its grandeur, luxury, and love of display, its great wealth and its enormous armies, was at the height of its power, the foreign traders were eminently successful; when Vijayanagar fell, and the city became desolate and depopulated, the foreign traders had no market for their goods, and trade decayed.

Mr. Sewell gives a separate chapter to "the buildings, works, and inscriptions of Krishna Deva," emphasising the greatness of this king. Under his craven successor, Achyuta, the Empire began to fall to pieces: "he appears to have dislocated the whole Empire, alienated the nobles, upon whom the defence of the country rested, and aroused in them a spirit of rebellion to the crown." His successor, Sadâsiva, was but nominally king, the power of the State being in the hands of Râma Râya and his two brothers, Tirumala and Venkatâdri. The arrogance of Râma Râya brought the troubles of Vijayanagar to a head. The kings of the Deccan entered into a coalition headed by the Sultan, and the Moslems disastrously defeated the Hindus, Râma Râya falling in a great battle on January 23, 1565. The inhabitants of Vijayanagar, full of confidence in the mighty army that had marched out at the gates, had no anticipation of calamity.

Suddenly, however, came the bad news. The army was defeated, the chiefs slain, the troops in retreat. . . . Then a panic seized the city. The truth became at last apparent. This was not a defeat merely, it was a cataclysm. All hope was gone. The myriad dwellers in the city were left defenceless. No retreat, no flight was possible except to a few, for the pack-oxen and carts had almost all followed the forces to the war, and they had not returned. Nothing could be done but to bury all treasures, to arm the younger men, and to wait. Next day the place became a prey to the robber tribes and jungle people of the neighbourhood. Hordes of Brinjâris, Lambâdis, Kurubas, and the like, pounced down on the hapless city and looted the stores and shops, carrying off great quantities of riches. . . . The third day saw the beginning of the end. The victorious Mussalmans had halted on the field of battle for rest and refreshment, but now they had reached the capital, and from that time forward for a space of five months Vijayanagar knew no rest. The enemy had come to destroy, and they carried out their object relentlessly. They slaughtered the people without mercy; broke down the temples and palaces; and wreaked such savage vengeance on the abode of the Kings that with the exception of a few great stone-built temples and walls nothing now remains but a heap of ruins to mark the spot where the stately buildings stood. . . . Nothing seemed to escape them. . . . Never perhaps in the history of the world has such havoc been wrought, and wrought so suddenly, on so splendid a city; teeming with a wealthy and prosperous population in the full plenitude of prosperity one day, and on the next seized, pillaged, and reduced to ruins, amid scenes of savage massacre and horrors beggaring description.

Still, there came a Third Dynasty, "if dynasty it can be appropriately called." Tirumala, who had married a daughter of Krishna Deva Râya, is said to have murdered his sovereign Sadâsiva and seized the throne in 1568. Mr. Sewell gives but a meagre summary of events down to 1673. In that year Sivaji conquered all the Konkan territory, "and four years later he had overthrown the last shreds of Vijayanagar authority in Kurnool, Gingi, and Vellore." It is interesting to note that "the site on which stands Fort St. George at Madras was granted to Mr. Francis Day, chief factor of the English there, by Srî Ranga Râya VI in March, 1639, the king being then resident in Chandragiri." Mr. Sewell's volume is laborious pioneer work, a history, indeed, but in the main a discussion of discrepancies and probabilities in historical order in the light of the most recent knowledge available. It is a very able and welcome "contribution to the history of India."

OUR LONDON LETTER.

WESTMINSTER, Thursday.

MANY shrewd observers are of opinion that the time has come, as they say in the newspaper offices, to pigeon-hole Mr. Balfour's obituary. The statement may shock the gentle reader. The expression, of course, has no reference to the Conservative leader's bodily health—it merely implies a failing confidence in the stability of his political reputation. Quite a substantial majority endorsed Mr. Balfour's action the other night in filching from the House of Commons almost the last shred of that assembly's debating freedom. The magnitude of the majority, however, was simply a measure of the extent to which party loyalty can at times absorb an Englishman's individual convictions. No one who has any knowledge of the currents of Parliamentary feeling would deny for a moment that Mr. Balfour never stood lower in the estimation of his followers than when he emerged from the division lobby on Monday night with a big Ministerial majority at his back. "This is not leadership," said Mr. Bartley in the course of the debate, and the mild yet comprehensive verdict received a universal endorsement.

If Mr. Balfour has been weighed in the balance and found wanting, there is still Mr. Chamberlain in reserve. But who would kill Mr. Balfour to make room for Mr. Chamberlain? Both men have brilliant gifts of intellect, but both alike are amazingly unequal in their mental and ethical equipment. The cardinal blemish of each personality is an exaggerated egotism. Mr. Balfour never thinks of other people, while Mr. Chamberlain is always thinking of what other people are thinking of him. That is why the Colonial Secretary is so unsuccessful in his efforts to bring the Boers to terms. He thinks less of what they want than of what he wants them to think that they should want. Diplomacy governed by that principle can, of course, have only one result. Surprise was neither felt nor expressed when Mr. Chamberlain rose the other evening and announced that his peace negotiations with the Boers had been broken off by General Botha with the ful approval of the Boer Government and Botha's military colleagues.

An episode of the debate on the Ashanti vote is worth recalling as an illustration of the kind of criticism to which Mr. Chamberlain is most susceptible. He had been accused by Mr. Lloyd George of boasting that while the Liberals when in office had been content to let things drift in a humdrum way in West Africa, no sooner did he, Mr. Chamberlain, come into power than we succeeded in stirring up six wars. The Colonial Secretary has no sense of humour. "I never said that," he expostulated. "What I said was: that of six outbreaks in West Africa my department had been responsible for three and the Foreign Office for the other three." The Member for Carnarvon gravely amended his accusation, and then reminded Mr. Chamberlain that to him, after all, a war was but as a feather more or less in his cap. "If we could only keep you long enough in office," Mr. George added pleasantly, "we shall have so many wars that your head will soon become like a Red Indian's." The sally provoked a roar of laughter. One had only to look at the mortified statesman's face to see that he was more keenly touched than if all the great guns of the Front Opposition Bench had been pounding at his policy for hours.

When is a promise not a promise? Different Ministers offer different replies to the query. Mr. Balfour, it will be remembered, hazarded the solution, "When the person to whom the promise is made does not ask for its redemption." The Duke of Devonshire bluntly asserts that a promise is always a promise. At the same sime, even the Duke is beginning to be a little tainted with sophistry. "You may acknowledge that a promise exists," he says, "without committing yourself to the admission that it was ever actually made." Lord Salisbury, with characteristic cynicism, goes further than either of his colleagues. "A promise," he insinuates, "ceases to be a promise when it begins to be a nuisance." The foregoing narration is partly a parable, partly a statement of fact and wholly an accurate representation of the mental attitude in which Ministers are now contemplating their election pledges to institute an enquiry into the mishaps and blunders of the South African campaign.

Lord Salisbury frankly regards the episode as an absurd jest. He listened with patient resignation the other night to the lumbering excuses of the Duke of Devonshire. "Yes," said the Duke replying to Lord Sandhurst, "an enquiry appears to have been promised. I don't know who gave the promise. I didn't, but as it exists, the enquiry will be held. When the enquiry will be held, and what its form and scope may be, are subjects for future consideration. You must not ask me about them now." As the Duke was obviously in doubt as to whether after all a promise had actually been given, Lord Spencer obligingly quoted from a letter written last August by Mr. Brodrick containing the tell-tale phrase: "Pending the enquiry which has been promised into the war, my hands are tied."

So far, the evidence would have appealed to the average juror as fairly conclusive. The Prime Minister must have thought there was something in it, for he tried to ignore it altogether. "Do not let us deceive ourselves," he said, in his

most solemn manner. "If this enquiry is once initiated it will be no mere impersonal affair. All the disasters and shortcomings of the war will be reviewed, and the great question will be 'Who is to blame?'" Some of the peers exclaimed "Hear, hear." Lord Salisbury glanced at them in anger, mingled with compassion. "For myself," he sharply informed them, "I do not think it is desirable to know who is to blame." Strange to say, this remarkable confession was received in respectful silence. Lord Rosebery, however, obstinately returned to the baffling mystery of the authorship of the promise. "All that I want to know," he repeatedly observed, "is, when was this promise made, and by whom?" At last Lord Salisbury took up the challenge. "I would suggest," he said, with a mocking smile, "that we should refer that question to a roving commission of enquiry." And thus, with a last farcical touch, the comedy ended. Like the wind, which bloweth where it listeth, a Ministerial promise is known by its sound, but whence it cometh or whither it goeth—especially whither it goeth—not even a roving commission would be likely to ascertain.

One of Lord Salisbury's reasons for deprecating enquiry was that it might lead to a renewal of such controversies as had been witnessed a few days earlier in the duel between Lord Lansdowne and Lord Wolseley on the question of the latter's capacity as Commander-in-Chief. That is an old story by this time, and it is unnecessary now to return to its squalid details. Suffice it to say that, if Lord Wolseley was shown to have miscalculated the magnitude of the war, his late colleague and present adversary exposed himself at the same time to the censures of so fair-minded a statesman as Lord Northbrook for an unwarrantable and ungenerous resort to confidential correspondence for the petty purposes of debate. Not only so, but having made his own quotations from such documents, Lord Lansdowne refused to accede to Lord Wolseley's demand for the production of the documents themselves. No wonder that Lord Salisbury should say that this was a species of controversy which nobody would wish to see repeated.

Most of the newspapers described the division on the Wolseley motion as a party affair. It was nothing of the kind. The Liberal peers, it is true, voted against the Government, but, all told, they only numbered seventeen, the remainder of the minority of thirty-eight being made up of eleven Liberal Unionists and ten Conservatives. Among the former were such strong Ministerialists as the Duke of Argyll, the Duke of Bedford, Lord Northbrook, Lord Camperdown, and Lord Heneage, while the Conservative peers included Lord Faversham, Lord Chelmsford, Lord Wantage, and Lord Dalhousie. The Bishop of Manchester and the Bishop of Rochester were the only prelates who took part in the division. Needless to say, they supported the Government. Lord Wolseley is described in "Dod" as a moderate Conservative. After his recent experience of Conservatism the adjective with which the ex-Commander-in-Chief qualifies this profession of his political creed may be expected to overshadow the substantive.

LETTER TO THE EDITOR.

THE FAMINE COMMISSION.

To the Editor of "India."

Sir,—Your Bombay correspondent was pleased to say in his weekly letter that I had given evidence before the Famine Commission to the effect that famine had nothing to do with Land Revenue assessments. I do not know where your correspondent got his information from. As far as I am able to remember, no such question was put to me, nor did I reply in the way your correspondent suggests. I have requested Secretary Famine Commission to favour me with a copy of my evidence. He is not able to supply me with a copy just yet, but when I am able to get one I shall make it a point to send it to you, and shall be obliged by your kindly publishing it for the information of your correspondent, and all others who may care to read it. For the present I must remain content with contradicting his statement in such a vague manner as it is possible for me to do by means of this letter.—Yours, &c.,

G. M. Chitnavis.

Nagpur, February 19, 1901.

[Mr. Chitnavis apparently refers to the following passage in our Bombay correspondent's letter which appeared in our issue of February 1 last:—

> A brief summary of the first day's proceedings appeared in the local dailies, from which I learn, with no little surprise, that Mr. Chitnavis asserted before the Famine Commission that the famine had nothing to do with land revenue assessments. I shall suspend my judgment on this statement till there is a detailed account of the evidence of this witness.

It will be seen that our correspondent, far from professing to report Mr. Chitnavis's evidence, expressed his surprise at the local reports and, in the absence of an authoritative report, suspended judgment upon the matter. We are glad to learn that, so far as Mr. Chitnavis can remember, no such question was put to him and no such answer given.—Ed. India.]

THE *INVESTORS' REVIEW* FAMINE FUND.

We take the following from the current issue (March 15) of the *Investors' Review*:—

Subscriptions to our little fund, from which not a penny is deducted for advertisement in newspapers or any other kind of charges, may be sent to A. J. Wilson, at this office; cheques to be crossed "Union Bank of London, Indian Famine Fund."

	£	s.	d.
Amount acknowledged last week	£944	4	8
Westbourne Grove Indian Circle, per J. W. B. Chapman	0	7	6
Article in *New Liberal Review*	2	2	0
	£946	14	2

THE VICTORIA MEMORIAL.

PROPOSAL FOR A LIBRARY IN INDIA.

We understand that a petition in the following terms has been forwarded to Lord Curzon on behalf of the Indians residing at present as students at Cambridge:—

May it please your Excellency,

We, the undersigned, subjects of His Imperial Majesty Edward VII., Natives of India, residing at present as Students at Cambridge, beg leave most humbly to present to your Excellency this petition of ours.

Whereas a Fund has been started under your Excellency's auspices for the purpose of establishing institutions in India with a view to perpetuate the Glorious and Sainted Memory of our late Empress Victoria, we beg to submit to your Excellency's favourable consideration our prayer that out of the money subscribed a sum of at least five lakhs be set apart for the establishment of a Library at the seat of the Indian Research University, or at such other place as your Excellency may think proper.

We beg to represent to your Excellency that at present there is no Library in India sufficiently large to be of use to Students desirous of carrying on research in Mathematics and Physical Science, studies which have been so much furthered by your Excellency's kind encouragement. We assure your Excellency that some of us know from bitter personal experience how difficult it is to do original work in India under the present circumstances, and we believe that by granting our prayer your Excellency will not only earn the gratitude of the educated Indians but also perpetuate the memory of our late August and Beloved Empress in a manner which would have been most acceptable to her.

We are your Excellency's most dutiful and loyal subjects.

[The signatures of a large number of students follow, beginning with the name of Mr. R. P. Paranjpye, who was Senior Wrangler in 1899.]

MR. DADABHAI NAOROJI AT READING.

THE RELATIONS OF ENGLAND AND INDIA.

The Castle Street Congregational Chapel was packed to overflowing on Sunday afternoon (says the *Reading Standard*), when the Castle Street Pleasant Hour Society and the Broad Street P.S.A. assembled to hear the "grand old man of India," Dadabhai Naoroji (the ex-Prime Minister of Baroda), speak concerning the relations of England and India; and how India had fared under the former's rule. Mr. Naoroji did not colour his story with his own opinions, but dealt exclusively with facts, leaving the audience themselves to draw their own conclusions. The Rev. F. W. Robertson Dorling presided, and there were also present the Rev. R. H. Sewell and Messrs. H. T. Pugh, F. A. Cox, J. W. Barnes, J. Rabson, H. Dyer, A. Watson, Wheeler, Fish, A. Nicholls, D. Wilson, J. Gray and Austin.

The Chairman said how pleased they were to welcome their friends

from the Broad Street P.S.A. (Applause.) They were fortunate in having so distinguished a speaker as Mr. Naoroji. They had all heard of his work and of his noble efforts on behalf of his native land—the land which was part of our great Empire. (Applause.) Of course, India was a very long way off, but as regards sympathy, brotherliness and Christian feeling, India was very close to this little island—so close that they looked upon it as part of the same land. To all intents and purposes, India was part of England, and they could assure Mr. Naoroji that he would have their earnest and entire interest as he spoke to them about India. (Applause.)

Mr. Naoroji said how gratified and grateful he was for the manner in which he had been invited and the way in which their good Chairman had introduced him to them; he could not wish for a higher compliment than that. He stood there as their fellow subject. India and England should go together in mutual sympathy as a matter of course, and the British public did not in the least intend that they should be governed in any other way than as British subjects. They in India hoped, and had been hoping, that these wishes should be fulfilled. Why then should he have to stand before them that day as an Indian, appealing to them and telling them that things were not as they ought to be? The British public, of course, judged from what they were told by the Anglo-Indian Press and the Press here. But they had never heard the other side of the question. That he should have to stand there and say things that were unpleasant was certainly unpleasant to him; but he knew the British public would listen to whatever they thought was reasonable and right. (Applause.) He did not for a moment mean that he had no good news, that they had nothing in common and no sympathy with each other, for, as far as the British public were concerned, they had every reason to be thankful. Whatever good had been done in India—and much good had been done—had been done as an outcome of that British instinct and character: its righteousness and justice. (Hear, hear.) They had received the English education; that which had enabled them to understand British institutions and character, and which had raised in them a hope that they might enjoy the same British institutions; that they might rise to the same British character and civilisation. That should be enough to satisfy the British public that Britain's connexion with India had done some good. (Hear, hear.) Then he had no doubt that they had heard of that new body which was formed some years ago in India—the Indian National Congress. That was the triumph of the influence of British intellect and good-will towards India, and the triumph of British character. It had brought together the whole of India into one body. In that Congress they had Hindus, Mohammedans, Indian Christians and every variety of creed, colour and race, speaking different languages, meeting together on one political platform, expressing their sentiments, their wishes and their hopes of reform from the British rule in that noble and great English language. That in itself was enough to satisfy any nation that it is a great and very important blessing. (Applause.) So far they would see that the Indians were, in every respect, in unison with the British public, for they believed they were in sympathy with them. He would next point out to them the political action which the British had taken towards the Government of India, and the consequences of that action. At first, Englishmen went to India and engaged in wars, with the one object of making profit. There was no objection to making profit, so long as that profit was made in the right way, and not as someone had said, "Make money, if you can by fair means; but make money." If they did not follow that suspicious principle, and if they went to any part of the world to make money by fair means, there could be no objection whatever. But when they obtained territorial power about the middle of the 18th century, somehow they fell into the ordinary error, and adopted towards the Indians a policy of greed, extortion and corruption to an extraordinary extent. Unfortunately, therefore, such was the beginning of all political connexion between the English and the Indians. To such an extraordinary extent did this go on that a committee was appointed to investigate the matter, and in 1772 was exposed the whole character of the oppressiveness of the ruling powers and officials at the time. There was a ferment in this country, as the British public did not like this sort of conduct on the side of their own countrymen. Up to that time they were simply treated as so many subjects, nothing more. The speaker referred to the revision of the charter of the East India Company in 1833, the introduction of a clause, and the Act of Parliament by which that charter was revised. With regard to this, a great deal of discussion took place in the House of Commons, such men as Lord Macaulay, Lansdowne, Peel, etc., taking part. Having thoroughly thrashed out the matter from every point of view they came to the conclusion that they must grant equality to India. They adopted this policy, and Macaulay said he would be happy to the end of his life because he had a share in framing that clause, which put the Indian subjects in exactly the same position as were the British subjects. What more could they want? All they aspired to was to be treated the same, and raised to the same position as the British subjects. This the Indians considered as their Magna Charta. But now came what they had to complain about. This clause remained entirely a dead letter until the next revision of the charter came on in 1853. On this revision a great deal of discussion took place, and at the time a society of Englishmen was formed of their own accord, and from their own sense of justice and responsibility, and in which John Bright took a prominent part. (Applause.) The only result of the agitation that took place then, as is always the case, was that part only of the policy which was for the benefit of the British people was carried out. John Bright continued his contention time after time, but to no effect, and then came that unfortunate incident, the Mutiny. The fault lay entirely on the Government itself. Even then the Indians, in their hope and sympathy with the British rulers, were on your side, and by the formation of Indian Regiments at the very moment of the mutiny, it was ultimately suppressed. The British statesmen then rose to the occasion, and declared more emphatically and more expressively than in the Act of 1833 that the Indian people should be treated exactly the same as the British subjects. This was done in the shape of a proclamation from the mouth of the Queen, and this would remain redounding to the credit of the British public to the end of time. They now had everything they could desire, so far as the British Parliament was concerned. Time went on and to-day that Act of 1833 and the great proclamation of 1858 were still dead letters, the same as though they did not exist. (Shame.) The British people had distinctly declared what the policy of the British public ought to be towards India, but those to whom they had entrusted the destinies of the Indians had never carried out either the Act of 1833 or the proclamation in the spirit in which it was granted to them. He appealed to the British public and to those who were really responsible for righteousness and justice towards those who were at their mercy. He asked them to reconsider the matter, to understand the position, and to compel their servants to do what they were bid to do. What was the consequence of all this? It would lead them to the present deplorable events now taking place in India, the question of famines. They were being bled to death. In the middle of the 18th century there was great oppression and corruption, and great plunder, and the result of this was that a large amount of the wealth of India was forcibly and despotically transferred to this country. This was the beginning of the exhaustion of India. Unfortunately an Empire like that of India could not be formed for nothing. There had been many wars, and these had cost hundreds of millions. The British had not spent a single shilling in the formation of the whole Indian Empire; they had exacted from the Indians every farthing of expenditure regarding the formation of this British Indian Empire. And not only that, it is mainly and chiefly with Indian blood that the British Indian Empire has been formed. There were 200,000 Indian soldiers, as compared with at the most 35,000 of the British, fighting against their own kith and kin, in order to form the British Indian Empire. Following up this exhaustion, they made the Indians pay every farthing for the formation and maintenance of the Empire, and also saddled them with a large European Civil and Military Service, by which they kept bleeding them year by year, to an extent increasing from three to five millions at the beginning of the century to about 30 or 40 millions at the present day. Reports had shown them that India was an exceedingly rich country, and that the people were the most poverty-stricken. That was an extraordinary combination. As a consequence of this poverty millions and millions were dying off like flies from the effects of the famine. They might say the famine was the consequence of the drought; there was want of rain and therefore want of produce. Supposing that to be true, though it was not, in their own country they did not produce a quarter or a third of the food they needed. But they had no famine. At the beginning of the century there was something like five or seven millions drained from India, now there was nearly thirty or forty millions transferred to this country yearly from India. Let them ask themselves the question, Were it possible that any country on the face of the earth would be able to supply, every year, millions and millions which were taken right away from the country, and yet prosper? Anyone with common sense would see that it would be strange if the condition of India was otherwise than it is, with the exhaustion and bleeding that is continually going on. In England they devoted as much as six months of Parliament to criticise every item on the Budget placed before the House. They would not allow a farthing to be spent unless they gave their sanction. But in India the expenditure was completely under the control of the Executive Government. The Indian members of that body might protest, if they liked, and make speeches, and say that such and such a thing was wrong, and hear their own voices, and there would be an end of it. The total of their produce from all sources in India did not average more than 30s. per head, and this very day, while they were struggling with famine and perishing by millions, they had to find for the services of the Europeans 200 or 250 million rupees before they could enjoy a single item of their profit. What greater cause could they require for the exhaustion and complete impoverishment and destitution of any country than this? The speaker ridiculed what Lord Curzon said before going to India; he told the British public that they went to India for the profit of India, and not for their own profit. It was, continued Mr. Naoroji, this sort of misrepresentation by which the British public was governed; this was the way in which the position of India was revealed to them. He would put it to them as Englishmen, did they understand their duty towards that vast mass of humanity? Were they doing what they ought to do in order that that vast mass of humanity, one quarter of the human race, should be happy and blessing their name, instead of, as at present, unhappy and cursing them? They had now been ruling India entirely despotically by themselves for 150 years more or less, with perfect free trade, and if they had carried out their policy and treated the Indians as British subjects, the consequence would have been that they would have had in India a trade and a market that they would never have been able to supply. (Applause.)

The Chairman thanked Mr. Naoroji for his speech. If there was one quality the British appreciated more than another it was straightforwardness, and he thought that the talking they had had that afternoon would do them good. (Hear, hear.)

Commenting on Mr. Naoroji's address, the *Reading Standard* wrote:—"India is a long way off and its vast population have no votes for the Imperial Parliament. As a consequence the intricacies of its government and administration are mysteries concealed from the average "man in the street." The ideal thing would be to give to our huge dependency self-governing institutions. Unfortunately, however, the lack of education in the case of an immense proportion of its inhabitants, the difference in its civilisation, and the immense variations in race and creed, are almost insuperable obstacles. Still something requires to be done if Mr. Dadabhai Naoroji is right. That gentleman, known as the "grand old man" of India, put some facts and figures well worthy of study before the united P. S. A. and Pleasant Hour Society, last Sunday afternoon, in Castle Street Congregational Chapel. With the awful responsibility of the government of hundreds of millions laid upon them, it is the duty of English

electors to inform themselves as to the circumstances under which these fellow subjects of theirs live, in order that they may be relieved of any injustices under which they suffer."

Under the headings "Dadabhai Naoroji at Reading, A Busy Week End." the same issue of the *Reading Standard* printed the following letter to the Editor:—

Sir,—The above indefatigable gentleman, despite his 77 years, came to Reading on Saturday at 4 53 p.m., and, attended by Mr. Gladstone Ashdown, he drove to Leighton Park College, and at six dined with the Principal, Dr. Ridges, and the Masters, and addressed the students from 7 to 8 on India. He rose at 7 a.m. Sunday and at 9.30 addressed the Church Street Adult School for 45 minutes, and afterwards was driven by Dr. Hurry to the Abbey Ruins, where Mr. Naoroji was treated by the doctor with a twenty minutes' interesting description. He indulged in a little rest and after luncheon went to Castle Street Chapel at 3 p.m., and addressed upwards of a thousand people, who listened with rapt attention for 50 minutes while the famous Indian orator unsparingly criticised their government of India, showing how they had failed in their duty. He then partook of tea and, as an aid to digestion, proceeded to Bridge Street Assembly Rooms and addressed an enthusiastic body of men and women on education, occupying one hour in speech and answering questions. He rose at 7 a.m. Monday and by special invitation visited the Biscuit Factory, where he was courteously received by Mr. Walter Palmer, and had a two hours' inspection under the personal conduct of the managing director, Mr. W. B. Williams, which Mr. Naoroji assured me interested and gratified him very much. After lunch, at the instance of Mr. Watson, who, with his kindly host, Mr. Robert Jackman, accompanied him to both establishments, he visited Messrs. Suttons' Mammoth Seed Emporium. Please permit me, as the honorary and responsible organiser of the visit, to express my appreciation of the courtesy shown by Reading generally to the venerable gentleman, which will be made known to and highly appreciated by millions of his brother Indians.—I am, Sir, Yours obediently,

67, Conduit-crescent, Reading. GIDEON ASHDOWN.
March 11, 1901.

MR. J. M. PARIKH ON INDIAN PROBLEMS.

[FROM A CORRESPONDENT.]

Mr. J. M. Parikh last week addressed three meetings at Kettering, Loughborough, and Middleton—at Kettering on "A plea for a Liberal policy in India"; at Loughborough, on "India: its people and its problems"; and at Middleton, "The land question in India." Readers of INDIA were found in the meetings at Kettering and Middleton. They expressed appreciation of the paper and spoke of the work done by it as "excellent and admirable." It was the only paper that gave the British public the Indian view of affairs in India. The resolution adopted by the general committee of the National Liberal Federation was passed at each meeting, and it was resolved to send copies of it to the local M.P. and to the Secretary of State for India. The meetings were large ones, particularly at Kettering, where great enthusiasm was shown. Everywhere people were surprised to know that the economic condition of India was so bad. They had no idea of the state of things in the country. Great surprise was expressed when they were told that the famines were a result of the awful poverty and not, as the officials said, of failure of rain. At Middleton the men and women workers of the place were gathered together to hear and learn the facts with a view to taking up the Indian question and doing substantial work amongst the electors. Questions were asked at each meeting.

The following report of the meeting at Kettering is taken from the *Evening Telegraph* (Northamptonshire):—

Under the joint auspices of the Kettering Liberal and the Kettering Women's Associations a well-attended meeting took place in the Assembly Room of the Liberal Club on Tuesday evening, when Mr. Javerilal Mobilal Parikh, barrister-at-law, gave an address entitled "A plea for a Liberal policy in India." The chair was taken by Mr. C. Wicksteed. Amongst the company present were Messrs. J. A. Gotch, J.P., T. Foster, D. P. Boyd, R. Wrigley, C. Blunsom, N. Newman, A. M. Patrick, H. H. Newman, A. J. Newman, F. Toseland, W. Ballard, T. Panter, H. F. Standley, G. I. Wilson, Mrs. Saunders (Secretary of the Women's Liberal Association), Mrs. C. Whitfield (Assistant Secretary), and others.

The CHAIRMAN said the question was one of supreme importance to England. Whether rightly or wrongly they had possession of India, and if they did not govern successfully, they might, at the end of a term of years, lose India. If they were an Imperial people they must remember also that they had their responsibilities and duties. Were they moving in the right direction in India? They had done a great deal of good there, and they ought to do all they could towards the lifting up of the people in India. The Chairman also read a letter from Mr. Burley Wallis in which he expressed the hope that the series of meetings which are being held in various parts of the country might do something to arouse the attention of the country to their duty to India.

The lecturer explained that that was one of a series of meetings being held in various parts of the country with a view of arousing interest on the question. In the early part of his address he touched on the drastic powers possessed by the Indian Executive Council. In India the people only had the right of recommending to the Government, and the Executive Council had the power to reject it, or say whether it should be brought forward. Another drawback was the debate as to the budget. It was introduced only for criticism, for no member of the Legislative Council had a right to vote or criticise any specific item of expenditure or challenge any division of the Council on any item. Coming to the office of the Secretary of State for India, the speaker said it had been built at the expense of India, and the cost of every officer in it down to the meanest porter was raised from the taxpayers of India, although not a single Indian was employed there. The Government of India was responsible to no one, and he argued that that was not right, and that the people of this country ought to have some voice in it. The Secretary of State had never been defeated on any measure in the House of Commons on the question of India, for he always had a majority in the House at his back, and whatever he put forward was passed as a matter of course, and whatever were the wishes of the people of India they were never listened to. Many of the frontier wars had been carried on in spite of the wishes of the non-official population, who looked upon the policy as a suicidal one India had a natural boundary with its mountains, and the policy of this country in trying to subdue the wild tribes and making the roads there would be a source of danger rather than a source of safety. If ever Russia should wish to invade India they had very much facilitated the work. On the frontier wars they had spent £80,000,000 and thousands of lives. Since the administration of India had been taken over by the Crown he was sorry to say that the famines came at intervals of four years against an interval of seven and a half years previously. He did not entirely look upon these famines as an "act of God." It was true when the rains did not fall in certain quarters the crops were not so plentiful, but it did not follow that if there was shortness in one part there was not plenty in another part. It was a great pity now that they possessed such means of locomotion that so many millions were dying of starvation. In 1877 when no less than five millions died of starvation in Madras alone no less than £10,000,000 was exported from India. During the years of 1896 and 1897, at the time of the terrible famine in India, no less than thirteen millions was exported from India. That showed that if the people had the means of buying food there was sufficient to supply the wants of everybody. It was only a part of the truth to say that the famines were due to the want of rain. It was the famine of money and not of food that they most suffered from in India. The lecturer then touched upon the heaviness of the taxation, showing that it had been the heaviest where the famines had been, and that it was almost impossible for the cultivators of the land to pay the sums imposed on them. Any amount of money could be found for military operations in India, but none was forthcoming for internal improvements. The scandalous treatment of the Indians in Natal having been dwelt upon, the speaker condemned the Australian Government for using its first powers in bringing forward a Bill to restrict the Indian people from going to that country. Most of the high civil offices in India were filled by English people who only went out there to make their "pile," which they afterwards spent in England. Sixteen millions of money going out of the country every year was bound to have a bad effect upon the economic conditions of the country. He denied that the people of India were seditious, and having outlined the history of the Sedition Bill, pointed to the manner in which the news of the Queen's death was received to disprove the assertion that the people of that country were disloyal. If the people were as disloyal as some would say they were, how was it that at that time the Government were able to withdraw 30,000 troops for service elsewhere. The Anglo-Indians were not in sympathy with the people of India, and did not know their feelings. The Indian people, however, believed that the intentions of England were good towards India, and they were living in hope that the time was coming when it would be governed on more liberal principles.

Mr. D. P. BOYD then moved: "That this meeting deplores the succession of severe famines which have caused the deaths of millions of people in India in recent years, and considers it necessary to prevent the recurrence of such severe calamities by moderating the land tax, extending irrigation works, and relieving, as far as possible, the annual burdensome drain on the financial resources of India, which impoverishes the people of that country." He said he thought the lecturer had under-stated the facts rather than over-stated them. It would be a great advantage if something could be done to develop the Native industries.

Mr. WRIGLEY seconded the resolution, and thought many of the injustices were allowed to remain on account of the ignorance of the people of this country on the subject.

The resolution having been carried, Mr. W. WILSON moved a vote of thanks to the lecturer, which was seconded by Mrs. Saunders. That gentleman having replied, the meeting closed with the usual compliment to the chairman.

EXCESS OF EXPORTS.

INTERESTING CORRESPONDENCE.

The following correspondence has passed between Mr. O. P. Austin, Chief of the Bureau of Statistics, Treasury Department, Washington, U.S.A., and Mr. Dadabhai Naoroji:—

Washington House, 72, Anerley Park, London, S.E.
December 5, 1900.

Dear Sir,—I shall feel much obliged if you would kindly give me the following explanation.

I enclose a table of total imports and exports showing the excess of either worked out of your "Monthly Summary of Commerce and Finance of the United States," July, 1900, No. 1. Series, 1900-1901.

Now, ordinarily, a person or country exports its produce with the desire of getting back in return as much of other countries' produce as would be equal in value to the exports, besides some profit. If I export goods from here to India, say, worth $1,000, I expect a return in some merchandise or specie, or in both merchandise and specie, which will close the transaction by my being in possession of $1,000 plus profits, or, say, $1,200, taking 20 per cent. as profit, or $1,100, taking 10 per cent. as profit. Similarly, therefore, in the case of the trade of a country, ordinarily, the total imports (merchandise and specie) of a country should exceed exports (merchandise and specie). This result is modified by the factor of loans from a

foreign country to the extent of adding to the imports the amounts of the loans, and of adding to exports the amounts of interest or dividend on such loans; or repayment of part or whole of such loan to the lending country. Another factor of modification is expenses incurred in carrying on a war outside of the country, requiring exports for the war, for which no return in imports can come. Now, what I desire to understand is this:—

On examining the table which I enclose it will be found, from the year 1835 to the year 1873, there is upon the whole the nett excess of imports of $714,580,623.

But from the year 1874 to the year 1900, with only two small exceptions, there is a continuous excess of exports, making the nett excess of exports $4,899,602,982; and, taking for the whole period, from 1835 to 1900, there is a nett excess of exports of $4,185,022,359.

The question is what has caused so much produce (merchandise and specie) of America to go out, without the ordinary corresponding return with profit: How much of the factor of borrowing and how much the factor of war outside the country have modified the ordinary results of true trade.

In India a heavy nett excess of exports always takes place because the system of government of India compels a heavy tribute, *i.e.*, compels a large drain of the produce of India to England without any material return of merchandise or specie.

But America is not under such a draining system of an alien foreign government; and I, therefore, desire to know the causes, and their extents, of such heavy nett excess of exports of America's wealth or produce, and how this large "balance of trade" is expected to be settled.

Hoping to be excused for the trouble I am giving, and to be favoured with a reply,

I remain, Yours truly,
(Signed) DADABHAI NAOROJI.

O. P. Austin, Esq.,
Chief of the Bureau of Statistics,
Treasury Department, Washington, U.S.A.

Treasury Department, Bureau of Statistics,
Washington, Jan. 10, 1901.

Dear Sir,—I have your very interesting letter of December 5, asking the explanation of the fact that the exports of merchandise from the United States are not equalled by imports either of merchandise or specie. This is a subject which has occasioned much enquiry on the part of our economists and students of matters of this character, and while it is not practicable to answer it in exact terms because of the absence of accurate statistical data relating to the factors which must be considered, the general facts may be stated in a few words.

During the period immediately following our Civil War great internal development of our railways and manufacturing occurred. Much foreign capital was brought into the United States for use in this development, and during that time and in subsequent years railroad and other securities were largely marketed abroad. The commercial results of this development of railways and manufacturing establishments, including the opening of new fields of production, was an enormous increase in the exportations and a disposition to relatively decrease the importations because the development of manufactures was making it practicable to produce at home from our own materials much which was formerly brought in from abroad. Thus the great business development of the years 1870 to 1890 had a tendency to stimulate production and exportation, but discouraged importation, and, as a consequence, exports exceeded imports in a constantly increasing ratio. The fact, however, that large sums had been borrowed abroad for the internal developments above alluded to required payments of large sums for the annual interest charges, and thus absorbed a part of the proceeds of the surplus exports. The earnings of foreign capital invested in great enterprises in this country, other than that obtained by the sale of bonds or by direct loans, also require considerable sums for the payment of the dividends and profits of the enterprises in which it was invested. The further fact that internal commerce and investments in internal developments were extremely profitable, reduced and temporarily suspended shipbuilding in the United States, and, as a consequence, the increasing traffic came to be carried more and more in foreign ships, and the payment of the freights thereon, especially the freights upon imports, again absorbed a large additional amount of the proceeds of the excess of exports.

Another factor to be considered is that of the money expended by Americans travelling abroad who usually take their funds in the form of letters of credit, and draw from time to time for such sums as they require, and this of course proves an offset to that extent against the balance which would otherwise be returned to the United States in the form of cash.

Until recently these four great factors—(1) the payment of interest on American securities held abroad; (2) the payment of earnings of foreign capital invested in business enterprises in the United States; (3) the payment of freights carried in foreign vessels, especially freights on goods imported into the United States; and (4) the expenditures of Americans travelling abroad, have been considered the chief cause of the fact that the exportations of merchandise so much exceeded the combined importations of merchandise, specie and bullion. Within the last two or three years, however, three further factors have apparently been added—(1) the cancellation of American indebtedness abroad, including a return to the United States of the railroad and other securities thus held; (2) the sale of foreign securities in the United States, such as the German, British and Russian securities which were placed upon the markets here during the last year, and in most cases very rapidly and quickly taken to the amount of probably $100,000,000 in the year; and (3) the credits which now stand abroad in favour of our exporters, and which are permitted to so stand because better interest rates could thus be realised than by insisting upon their immediate payment.

The sums of money represented by these various factors which presumably about equal the excess of exports over imports have been variously estimated, and up to the present time no means of obtaining more than estimates have been devised. These estimates usually put the amount paid to foreign vessels as freights on imports at about $50,000,000; interest on, and earnings of foreign capital, $75,000,000 to $100,000,000; money expended abroad by Americans, $75,000,000 to $100,000,000; American funds invested in foreign securities in 1900, about $100,000,000; and credits permitted to stand abroad in 1899 and 1900, each $75,000,000 to $100,000,000; to which must be added the amount of our foreign indebtedness actually cancelled by the return of securities for which no definite estimate has, so far as I am aware, been made.

The United States is rapidly increasing her production, especially of the minerals and of manufactures for exportation, while the rapid development of our manufacturing industries steadily reduces the relative importations of manufactured goods, though the raw materials required for our manufacturers, especially those of a tropical and sub-tropical nature which we cannot produce at home, are constantly increasing, as are also the tropical food-stuffs of which we do not produce a sufficient quantity to meet our own requirements. The fact that we are rapidly becoming a creditor instead of a debtor nation will reduce to a minimum and wipe out the annual balance for payment of interest on our securities held abroad, and finally for the liquidation of those securities, and to this extent the absorption of our favourable balance of trade will be rapidly reduced, while the present disposition to encourage the re-establishment of our shipping industry in a sufficient volume to carry our growing commerce seems to justify the expectation that this drain upon our surplus may be at least somewhat reduced in the near future. Our foreign credits, as above alluded to, have increased largely during the last few years, and foreign obligations have been taken by investors in the United States in large sums; but it seems at least probable that two of the factors which absorbed a considerable share of the favourable balance, namely, the payment of interest and indebtedness abroad, and payment of freights to foreign vessels, will within a comparatively short time be materially reduced, and thus require a settlement with specie and bullion of a larger proportion of the trade balance than has been the case in former years.

Very truly yours,
(Signed) O. P. AUSTIN,
Chief of Bureau.

Mr. Dadabhai Naoroji,
72, Anerley Park, London, S.E.

Washington House, 72, Anerley Park, London, S.E.
January 28, 1901.

Dear Sir,—I am very much obliged to you for your reply of the 10th inst. I see there is a little misunderstanding. I did not mean that the exports of merchandise *alone* of the United States are not equalled by the imports of *either* merchandise *or* specie. What I meant was that the exports of both merchandise and specie and bullion totalled together are not equalled by imports of *both* merchandise and bullion and specie totalled together. The same remark applies to the words in page 3, lines 10-12, of your letter under reply, viz., "that the exportation of merchandise so much exceeded the combined importations of merchandise, specie and bullion." My comparison is for combined merchandise, specie and bullion, in both exports and imports, to strike the proper balance.

In my tables the word "bullion" alone is used, and in my letter the word "specie" is alone used; but the actual figures in the table I have sent are the totals of both bullion and specie.

There is another point which is to be considered. The excess of exports as shown in my table is made *after* deducting the *total* imports; and these *total* imports include any amounts borrowed by the United States. This means that the net exports referred to are made after making full allowances for such borrowed amounts in the imports. For such loans form a part of the imports just as any amounts lent by the United States will form a part of the exports of the United States.

If the amount borrowed by the United States were considered as outstanding, then the net exports will have to be increased by the amount so borrowed and considered as an outstanding debt.

I suppose any war expenditure outside the United States will also be a factor included in the excess of the exports or net exports.

Yours truly,
(Signed) DADABHAI NAOROJI.

O. P. Austin, Esq.,
Chief of the Bureau of Statistics,
Treasury Department, Washington, U.S.A.

THE INDIAN CENSUS FIGURES.

SOME OPINIONS OF THE BRITISH PRESS.

The *Bradford Observer* wrote (March 14):—

The Indian census figures are appalling. In the Native States of the Bombay Presidency the population has dwindled by nearly 900,000. It is not likely that the returns from the British territories will be less disastrous on the whole. In fourteen districts there is a shrinkage of 725,000 against an increase of 547,000 in fifteen other districts, but the Poona returns have yet to come in, and they are certain to make matters worse rather than better. There can be no doubt that plague and famine have literally decimated a large part of that Indian Empire which is so much in the mouths of our megalomaniac orators and so little in their thoughts. Surely this frightful death certificate will induce the British Parliament and the British public to pay more attention to those countries and communities for which they are already responsible. Indifference would not only be disgraceful but

dangerous. No people in the world now believe in the righteousness or necessity of what Malthus called "the positive checks to population." If a country is subject to pestilence and famine its rulers are not entitled to fold their hands and put the blame on Providence; they are expected to call in the resources of civilisation to provide against such terrible contingencies. The British Government in India cannot honestly plead that it has done this. When the famine came much relief was granted, but how much more was needed these dreadful figures proclaim aloud. It is a question now, moreover, not of mitigating famine, but of providing against its recurrence—a policy which should involve a vast extension of irrigation and railway works, a cessation of military drafts on India for purposes which do not really concern her, an adjustment of taxation which will enable the Hindu peasant to make some provision of his own against the rainless day. The stock stories of Anglo-Indian optimism will not stand against the arithmetic of these census returns. Unless we take them to heart and act upon them not India only, but some parties which are believed to be anxious to persuade India that "Codlin's the friend" will take significant measurement of our Imperialistic boasts.

The *Investors' Review* wrote (March 16):—

We can make nothing of the latest message sent to the *Times* about the Indian census, and must wait for details and particulars. Plainly, however, the population has been decreasing in many parts of the Peninsula, and, as the *Times* correspondent in Calcutta says, there are even now 200,000 people on relief works, the vast majority of whom are British subjects. At no distant day this number will be largely increased. He adds that, regarding British territory, there is a decrease in fourteen districts of 725,000, and an increase in fifteen districts only of 547,000, of which 316,000 belong to Sind. The Poona figures have not yet been received, but they are scarcely likely to improve matters. Plague and cholera, besides the famine, contributed to the decrease in the Western Presidency. In eleven Native States the decline in population aggregates nearly 900,000 as the result of famine. And famine and plague are now chronic in India; must remain so until our methods of dealing with that important dependency are radically changed.

The *Dundee Advertiser* wrote (March 11):—

The Indian census brings out the surprising fact that the population of the Peninsula is decreasing. Although the statistical results are not yet completely worked out, enough has been disclosed to show that the total figure will be considerably smaller than that produced ten years ago. Then India's population was found to be growing at a rate of about 12 per cent. in the decennial period; now it is said to show a shrinkage of about 8 per cent. There can be little doubt that this shrinkage is partly due to the famines that have recurred on such a devastating scale in the past five years; but it is probably due in equal measure to the Indians' new found readiness to emigrate. In all the countries bordering the Indian Ocean Indians now abound. In British East Africa, Central Africa, Zanzibar, and as far south as Natal, they have entered into possession, and in the three first-named countries they are welcomed without reserve. They have even gone further afield, and now form a numerous colony in British Guiana. Whatever be the cause of the decrease, the Indian Government can hardly help rejoicing in the fact. Nothing has troubled Eastern administrators more in the past fifty years than the steady and portentous growth of the Indian population. The peace enforced by British rule, the sanitary measures insisted upon, alien to Oriental habits, the fights made against famine, all helped to bring the problems of over-population upon us, and the last famine probably showed that in these respects we had only worked too well.

[Will the *Dundee Advertiser* explain upon what grounds it speaks of "over-population" in India? Every attempt to support the theory by statistics has hitherto failed.—Ed. India.]

Imperial Parliament.

Thursday, March 14.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

THE FAMINE IN INDIA.

Lord Sandhurst asked the Under-Secretary of State for India if he could give any information as to scarcity prevailing in some parts of India, and whether the stability of the rupee had yet had any effect in aiding the introduction of capital into India.

The Earl of Hardwicke said that, generally speaking, the experience of last year had shown that India, even in time of famine, could produce sufficient food to feed her people. The latest information regarding the food supplies and harvest prospects of the country was contained in the following telegram which was received yesterday from the Viceroy:—

"In Burma, Bengal, North-West Provinces, Panjab, full average outturn of rice and other autumn crops has been obtained, and, notwithstanding damage caused by rain and blight, an average spring crop is expected there. Population, 150,000,000; food grain area, 120,000,000 acres. In Madras, harvest all round below the average by about 20 per cent. Population, 36,000,000; food grain area, 28,000,000. In Bombay, Central Provinces, and Berar, with population 31,000,000 and food grain area 38,000,000 acres, autumn harvest was poor and area sown below the average. Spring crops prospects are disappointing in Central Provinces and Berar, and bad in large portion of Bombay. Prospects fair to good in Mysore, Central India, and Rajputana, with population 27,000,000; poor in Baroda and in great part of Haidarabad and Bombay States, with population 22,000,000. We anticipate that Burma, Bengal, and Upper India will have surplus food for those Provinces and States where crops are poor. Prices of wheat and other spring grains are high, especially in Bombay and Central Provinces, and it is possible that they may not fall much until next rains. Maize and millets are locally cheap in Upper India, and also in Gujerat and in part of Central Provinces. The food stocks of the country are believed to be smaller than usual, but will be replenished by coming harvest." With regard to the latter part of the question, he did not wish to anticipate the figures of the annual financial statement which would be submitted to the Viceroy's Council next week, but he might state generally that one of the most important results of the steadiness in the price of the rupee had been to retain capital in, and to attract capital to, India. People now were not afraid to remit money to India to their friends and relatives, feeling secure as they did that there was no fear of any immediate fall in the price of the rupee. There had been an increase, too, during the last few years in the number of factories, the hands employed, and in the capital invested in the country. But the most striking and significant sign of the confidence that had been re-established in the fiscal system of India was to be observed in the railway statistics. In 1893 the capital invested in Indian railways was 165 millions; in 1900 it had amounted to 200 millions. During those seven years the mileage had increased from 17,200 to 24,600 miles, or an average of 1,000 miles a year. The first Indian railway was opened in 1853, and the railway revenue accounts for 1899-1900 showed for the first time during these 47 years a net profit of £76,000. That was in no sense a paper profit, but was arrived at after allowing 4 per cent. interest on all capital expenditure during all these years. He believed the returns for 1900-1 would show a similar increase. In short, if India was only spared from a recurrence of plague and famine in the near future there was every prospect that she would enter on a new era of prosperity.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

BOER PRISONERS IN INDIA.

Mr. James O'Connor asked the Secretary of State for India whether the Indian Government were making plans and estimates for the location of batches of 1,000 Boers at Dehra, Pachmarhi, and other places; and, if so, whether the Boers would be imprisoned in those districts.

Lord G. Hamilton: Arrangements are under consideration to locate Boer prisoners in India, in case the present and available places of detention become overcrowded.

Mr. Trevelyan asked the Secretary of State for War whether places were being prepared for the reception of Boer prisoners in India; whether, if so, the prisoners to be removed there were now at Ceylon, or whether the Government were contemplating sending any more out of South Africa; and whether, if the latter was the case, they would consider the possibility of sending them to our Australasian colonies in preference to India or Ceylon, both for climatic reasons and in order to increase the opportunities of friendly contact between the two races.

Mr. Brodrick: All the questions mentioned by the hon. member will be considered before any step is taken. It is not proposed to move any of the prisoners who have already been deported.

INDIGO DYE.

Mr. T. M. Healy asked the First Lord of the Treasury if he would ascertain whether any European or American Government insisted in their contract specifications for Army or Navy clothing on the use of indigo as a dye:

Did the English Government prescribe the indigo dye in order to assist an Indian product, or because it had been scientifically ascertained that it was a faster colour:

Was he aware that the specifications excluding process-dyed fabrics limited the competition for certain Government contracts to a small number of English makers who had not adopted modern methods of colouring; that no Irish manufacturers used any except aniline dyes, and could not compete for such material while indigo dyes were prescribed by the Admiralty and the War Office:

Would he explain why the recent Admiralty advertisement for clothing contracts specified a large number of English Chambers of Commerce where specimens of the material required could be inspected, but included no Irish city:

And, would he order independent scientific or technical investigation into the respective qualities of indigo and alizarine dyes, with a view to prevent manufacturers using modern dye-stuffs from being shut out from competing for a large number of Government clothing contracts.

Mr. Balfour: Indigo dye is prescribed in naval contracts for blue cloth and serge, because experience seemed to show that it is the best colour to resist the effect of salt water. Competition in this department is not limited. It is very keen, and no fewer than nine tenders have been accepted this year for blue cloth and twenty-four for blue serge. The matter of indigo dye had been quite recently reviewed by the Admiralty. Tests are in progress with the view of ascertaining whether there are any differences between natural and artificial dyes. I do not know what is the practice in Europe or America, but if the Admiralty, after their investigations, are clear that natural dye is better than artificial I do not think that any foreign examples ought to modify procedure in this country. As to the question whether the Government prescribed the indigo dye in order to assist an Indian product, that was not so, the dye

being taken on its merits without any reference to the country which produced it.

Friday, March 15.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

COOPERS HILL.

On the motion of Mr. Kimber a return was granted "showing the number of Petitions which have been received during the past fifteen years, either by the Government of India or by the Secretary of State for India, from the Officers of the Public Works Department who entered the Royal Indian Engineering College, Coopers Hill, during the first five years of its existence, the said Petitions containing, it is believed, representations to the effect that the terms under which they had been engaged had not been adhered to, and that their careers and prospects were thereby ruined or very seriously affected; also of the number and nature and date of the replies to these Officers."

MILITARY POSTS BEYOND THE FRONTIERS.

Mr. Herbert Roberts asked the Secretary of State for India whether he would state what military outposts were maintained at the close of 1898 beyond the frontiers of his Majesty's Indian possessions:

Whether he could give the aggregate strength of the garrisons by which these posts were held and the class of troops occupying them, and what was the estimated annual cost of the occupation of these positions:

And, whether he would state what was the present position as to the number, cost and disposition of troops holding these military outposts.

Lord G. Hamilton: There were in 1898 no military outposts maintained on the North-West Frontier outside the boundary of the Durand delimitation, and since the ratification of that agreement the line so defined is held to be the external frontier of British India.

THE NEW FAMINE.

Mr. Caine asked the Secretary of State for India whether he could give further information as to the condition of the winter crops in the Bombay Presidency and parts of Madras:

And, whether he would state what steps were being taken to deal with the renewed distress which now seemed certain.

Lord G. Hamilton: In Bombay the autumn harvest was poor and the area sown below the average; the spring crop prospects are bad throughout a large portion of the Presidency. In Madras the harvest is below the average to the extent of about 20 per cent. In Burma, Bengal and Upper India the prospects are such that these provinces will have surplus food with which to supply the wants of those localities where the crops are poor. It is only in the Bombay Presidency that the circumstances are such as to make special relief measures necessary. The Government have provided funds for this purpose and are taking steps, according to the provisions of the Famine Codes, for carrying on and extending any relief operations which may be necessary.

THE VICTORIA MEMORIAL.

Mr. Caine asked the Secretary of State for India whether he could state what amount had been subscribed in India for a memorial to her late Majesty Queen Victoria:

And, whether he could suggest to the Viceroy that this memorial should be such as to confer some permanent benefit upon the suffering masses in India.

Lord G. Hamilton: I have received no information as to the amount subscribed in India to celebrate by memorials the memory of her late Majesty. The matter is not an official one, and I could not interfere with the discretion of the subscribers as to the purpose to which their subscriptions should be put.

ORPHANS THROUGH FAMINE.

Mr. Caine asked the Secretary of State for India whether he was aware that, owing to the mortality in the Bombay Presidency from famine and disease, large numbers of orphans had been left entirely dependent upon charity:

And, whether he would state what had been done to provide for these children, and what public funds had been allotted to the support of public and private orphanages.

Lord G. Hamilton: Unhappily orphans are left after every serious Indian famine. After the 1897 famine about six lakhs of rupees were set apart for the maintenance of orphans. Volumes I. and II. of the Charitable Relief Fund Report describe at more length what was done. Briefly it may be said that a yearly sum was provided from Government or charitable funds for the support of every really destitute orphan, whether the child was in the keeping of co-religionists or of mission orphanages. I have no doubt similar arrangements will be made by the Government this year. But I have not received and have not asked for special report upon the subject.

LAND REVENUE COLLECTIONS.
85 PER CENT. FROM MONEYLENDERS!

Mr. Caine asked the Secretary of State for India whether he was aware that, in the Surat district, out of a total of 95 per cent. of land revenue collected last year, 85 per cent. was received from the money-lenders and only 10 per cent from the cultivators:

Under what authority the land revenue was received from money-lenders who were not in possession of the land:

Whether he will state what interest was exacted by the money-lenders from the cultivators for these advances:

And, whether, looking to the existing indebtedness of the cultivators, he would direct this practice to be abandoned.

Lord G. Hamilton: The matters to which this question refers are being investigated by the Famine Commission. Until I receive the Report of the Commission and the opinion of the Government of India, I do not propose to take any action.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

NOTICES OF QUESTIONS.

The following questions appear on the Notice Paper of the House of Lords:—

The Lord Stanley of Alderley—To ask the Under-Secretary of State for India if the Indian Government will relieve the Director of Public Instruction of Bombay from the task of reporting on Native publications to the Government of India; and, if the India Office will make some amends to Mr. Malabari for the charge of sedition so unjustifiably cast upon Mr. Malabari in the Director's Official Report of July 24, 1900.—(*March* 22.)

The Lord Stanley of Alderley—To ask the Under-Secretary of State for India how many churches have been built for Scots Presbyterian soldiers, and at what cost, since the Highland soldiers on their return from Dargai were refused admittance to the Garrison Church; and whether the Quarter-Master General would not be the fittest person to decide as to the use of garrison or cantonment churches·—(*March* 25.)

PUBLIC MEETINGS ON INDIAN QUESTIONS.

We regret that our report of Mr. Pillai's successful meetings in the North of England is unavoidably held over.

Mr. Dadabhai Naoroji will address meetings as follows:—March 31, South London Ethical Discussion Society (Surrey Masonic Hall, Camberwell New Road, S.E.), at 11.15 a.m. April 14, Free Christian Church, Croydon (Pastor Rev. John Page Hopps), on "Indian Famine: Its Cause and Cure"; 23, North Camberwell Radical Club and Institute, at 8.30 p.m., on "Condition of India."

In India for March 8 last was printed a list of meetings on Indian questions which Mr. G. P. Pillai and Mr. J. M. Parikh, barrister-at-law, had undertaken to address. The revised list is as follows:—

Mr. Pillai's meetings: March 11, Tyldesley Liberal Club; 12, Broadbottom Liberal Club; 13, Mossley Liberal Club; 14, Bury, Philips Liberal Club; 15, Winsford; 18, Leigh Liberal Club and Women's Liberal Association; 19, Cheadle Women's Liberal Association; 20, Hadfield Liberal Club; 21, Andersham Liberal Association; 25, Sheffield, Attercliffe Liberal Club; 26, Hollingworth Liberal Club; 27, Sheffield, Brightside Women's Liberal Association; 28, Darwen Liberal League; 29, Southport, North Meols Women's Liberal Association.

Mr. Parikh's meetings: March 12, Kettering Liberal Club; 13, Loughborough Liberal Club; 14, Middleton Liberal Club; 23, Leek Liberal Club; 24, Leek Labour Church; 25, Stoke-on-Trent Women's Liberal Association; 26, Leek (Joint Meeting) Liberal Association and Women's Liberal Association; 27, Bristol Women's Liberal Association; 28, Street (Somerset) Women's Liberal Association.

On February 9 Miss Alison Garland addressed a large meeting in the Town Hall, Sowerby Bridge. Mr. J. B. Blakeley presided. Miss Garland gave a graphic account of her experiences in India, and illustrated her lecture with eighty lime-light views. A hearty vote of thanks was accorded her.

On February 12 Miss Garland gave a similar lecture to a crowded audience at Queensbury.

On February 15 Miss Garland addressed a large meeting at Bridlington. The Rev. J. Hislop presided in the absence through illness of Mr. James Stuart, J.P. A collection was taken for the Famine Fund.

On March 4 Miss Garland addressed a meeting at Swindon. The Rev. Llewellyn Williams presided over a large attendance. He said they all read with keen interest Miss Garland's articles on the Indian Famine. They wanted to hear about the economic condition of the people of India. The frequency of these terrible famines must cause uneasiness to the people of this country. At the conclusion of the lecture many questions were put to the speaker and an interesting discussion followed. A collection was taken for the Famine Fund.

On March 11 and 14 Miss Garland addressed large audiences at Carlisle and Stockton-on-Tees on her visit to India. Both lectures were illustrated with lime-light views; and at Stockton a good collection was taken for the Indian Famine Fund.

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO INDIA.

To be obtained from
THE BRITISH COMMITTEE OF THE INDIAN NATIONAL CONGRESS,
84-85, PALACE CHAMBERS, WESTMINSTER, S.W.

Reports of the Proceedings at the Annual Sessions of the Indian National Congress, from the 3rd to the 14th Session. 2s. each, post free.

The Skeleton at the (Jubilee) Feast (Congress Green Book I.), by Sir WILLIAM WEDDERBURN, Bart. (being a series of suggestions for the prevention of famine in India). Post free, 7d.

Royal Commission on Indian Expenditure: Evidence-in-Chief of the Indian Witnesses. (Congress Green Book II.) Post free, 1s. 10d.

The Proposed Separation of Judicial and Executive Functions in India. Memorial to the Secretary of State. With two Appendices. (Congress Green Book III.) Post free, 1s. 2d.

Two Statements presented to the Indian Currency Committee (1898), by Mr. DADABHAI NAOROJI.

Speech by Mr. Dadabhai Naoroji, M.P., in the House of Commons, August 14, 1894, on the Debate on the Indian Budget.
Ditto do. in the House of Commons, February 12, 1895, on the Debate on the Address.
Ditto do. on British Rule in India (1898).

Presidential Address by Mr. Dadabhai Naoroji, M.P., delivered to the Indian National Congress at Lahore, 1893.

Presidential Address by Mr. A. M. Bose, M.A., delivered to the Indian National Congress at Madras, 1898.

Speeches of Mr. Alfred Webb, M.P., President of the Indian National Congress, 1894-5.

Valedictory Address of Mr. Alfred Webb, M.P., delivered at Bombay, January 17, 1895.

Speeches of Mr. D. E. Wacha delivered at the 9th, 11th and 14th Sessions of the Indian National Congress.

Is the Government of India Responsible to Anyone, and if so to Whom? Speech delivered at Croydon by Mr. W. C. BONNERJEE.

The Famine in India. Speeches delivered at a Public Reception to Mr. Vaughan Nash on his return from the Famine Districts, July, 1900.

Mr. A. O. Hume's Farewell to India. Speech delivered at Bombay, 1894.

India Reform Pamphlet IX. The State and Government of India under its Native Rulers. 3d.

The Indian National Congress: its Aims and Justification. By ROBERT KNIGHT.

Indian Politics. A Series of Papers on Important Indian Questions by Prominent Congressmen. Post free, 4s. 4d.

A Needed Reform in the Indian Administration, by ROMESH C. DUTT, C.I.E.

The Bogey of a Russian Invasion. A Lesson from the Tirah Campaign, by Col. H. B. HANNA.

The High Courts and the Collector-Magistrates in India, by J. DACOSTA.

The Government of India and its Reform through Parliamentary Institutions, by J. DACOSTA.

Note on Sir J. Westland's Budget, 1894-5.

Note on the Explanatory Memorandum of the Secretary of State for India, 1894-5.

Note on Sir James Westland's Budget, 1895-6.

Note on Sir H. Waterfield's Tables, 1884-5 to 1894-5.

The Poor Man's Lamb: Famine Insurance for the Masses *versus* Exchange Compensation for the Classes.

REPRINTS FROM "INDIA."

The Judiciary and the Executive in India. Interview with Mr. Manomohan Ghose.
The Bombay Government and Higher Education, by the Hon. C. H. Setalved.
A National Famine Grant, Letter from the London Indian Society to Lord Salisbury, 1900.
India and the General Election (1900).
"Melancholy Meanness."
The "Over-population" Fallacy Again.
No National Contribution?
The "Sliminess" of the India Office.
"Mainly a Question of Money."

A Selection of the Publications enumerated above will be forwarded to responsible persons or Associations in the United Kingdom for gratuitous distribution, on written application to the British Committee, Indian National Congress, 84-85, Palace Chambers, Westminster, S.W.

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